



One-pot non-covalent heterogenization and aromatization of poly(ionic liquids) for metal-/cocatalyst-free and atmospheric CO₂ conversion

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ABSTRACT

The intensification of Lewis acidity/basicity of a given heterogeneous catalyst at a molecular level is an advanced approach for boosting CO₂ activation and conversion under extremely mild conditions, which, yet remains a great challenge. This work proposes a one-pot strategy for heterogenization and aromatization of homopolymerized ionic liquids (HpolyILs) through dynamic imine assembly with aromatic spacers for boosting CO₂ conversion into cyclic carbonates. The aromatization of HpolyILs can be controllably achieved at room temperature, and has been proven to enhance the Lewis acidity of C-2 proton on imidazolium IL for promoting ring-opening of epoxides and facilitate CO₂ bending synchronously. The resultant dynamic covalent polyILs exhibit superior catalytic activity and outstanding recyclability for a variety of epoxides under extremely mild conditions (1 atm, 50–90 °C) without metal/co-catalyst consumption. This work offers a feasible to scale-up approach for tailor-made designing high-efficiency heterogeneous catalysts for CO₂ utilization, guiding the precise regulation of acid-base catalysis.

1. Introduction

CO₂ conversion into high value-added products under atmospheric conditions is of vital meaning for CO₂ emission reduction in terms of climate protection and resource utilization [1,2]. Particularly, the coupling reaction of CO₂ and epoxides to synthesize cyclic carbonates has been considered as a promising route for CO₂ conversion because of the 100% atom utilization rate and wide application of the products [3–5]. Due to the high energy barrier of the ring-opening step of epoxides (the rate-determining step in such class of reaction) [6], great efforts have been made for developing efficient catalysts (especially heterogeneous ones). Most of the reported catalysts, nevertheless, still suffer from low catalytic activity (high reaction temperature and/or high CO₂ pressure) and/or high cost (i.e., complex synthesis, metal-/solvent/cocatalyst consumption) [2,7–10]. Very recently, focus has been paid to the nature of catalytic mechanism, and Lewis acidic or basic sites have been demonstrated to facilitate the rate determining step (i.e.,

the ring-opening of epoxides) through electrostatic attraction [11], ion-dipole [12–14] or hydrogen bonding [15]. It is therefore of great significance if one can manipulate the nature of active sites (i.e., strength, content and spatial location [16,17]) in a given heterogeneous catalyst to promote the catalytic activity under extremely mild conditions (even at room temperature or atmospheric pressure).

Ionic liquids (ILs) possess nucleophilic anions (e.g., halide ions) and acidic sites (e.g., C-2 proton on imidazolium ring), performing intrinsic activity for attacking epoxides and interacting with CO₂ molecules [18]. The flexible designability of ILs provides a feasible platform to precisely design and regulate the Lewis acidity/basicity at a molecular level [19, 20]. Nevertheless, the homogeneous nature, i.e., high viscosity and difficulty in separation has led to great focus on the heterogenization of IL. The most popular heterogenization approach until now is the post-synthesis covalent grafting of ILs on rigid porous nanomaterials [21–25], wherein low IL load and especially fixed location in rigid skeleton hinders the cooperation of active sites for generating a

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competitive catalytic activity under mild conditions. Alternatively, polymerization of ILs can ensure an enriched content of ILs and the flexibility of polymers, enabling a desirable spatial close of active sites to cooperate with each other during the catalytic process [2,26–29]. Nevertheless, homopolymerized ILs generally exhibit thick liquid or gel state and maintain homogeneous nature in the coupling reaction of CO₂ and epoxides [29]. The incorporation of aromatic backbone into flexible polymers is of high promise for the heterogenization of poly(ionic liquids) (polyILs) [2,26,28,29]. Moreover, the rigid skeleton ensures an efficient access of active sites with substrates, thus counterbalancing the utilization efficiency and cooperation effect of active sites [27]. Meanwhile, the incorporation of electron-withdrawing aromatic group is hopeful for facilitating CO₂ activation [30]. Considering complex covalent synthesis procedure is often required during the copolymerization of IL and aromatic monomers, great challenges remain to explore a facile and green approach for the facile heterogenization and aromatization of homopolymerized ILs.

Dynamic covalent chemistry (DCC) involves a series of covalent chemical reactions in reversible equilibrium that are based on dynamic covalent bonding (e.g., ester bonding, imine bonding, acylhydrazone bonding, and bisulfide bonding) [31–33]. As a typical class of dynamic covalent bonds, dynamic imine bond can undergo reversible reactions under mild conditions and possesses specific directionality and robustness, endowing the assemblies with high stability and recyclability [34]. Herein, we propose a dynamic covalent strategy for the heterogenization and aromatization of homopolymerized imidazolium ILs through imine assembly with aromatic spacers. By virtue of the dynamic non-covalent nature, the structure of the dynamic covalent heterogeneous polyILs can be facilely regulated through the assembly process control, thus offering a feasible approach for promoting the catalytic activity. The incorporation of aromatic moiety has been proven to bend CO₂ and promote the hydrogen bonding between C-2 proton on imidazolium ring and O on epoxides synchronously, thus boosting the reaction of CO₂ and epoxides. The findings provide a feasible approach for precisely intensifying the catalytic activity of a given heterogeneous Lewis acid/base catalyst.

2. Experimental

2.1. Materials

1-Vinylimidazole (99%), 2-bromoethylamine hydrobromide (98%), epichlorohydrin (ECH, 98%), epibromohydrin (98%), epoxyp propane (99%), 1,2-epoxybutane (97%), styrene oxide (97.5%), 1,4-phthalaldehyde (98%), 4,4-biphenyldicarboxaldehyde (98%), benzene-1,3,5-tricarbaldehyde (97%) and 2,2'-azobisisobutyronitrile (99%) were purchased from Shanghai Titan Technology Co. Ltd. CO₂ (99.99%) and N₂ (99.99%) were purchased from Taiyuan Steel Co. Deionized water was used in all the experiments.

2.2. Synthesis of materials

2.2.1. Homopolymerization of ILs

1-Vinylimidazole (9.41 g, 100 mmol) and 2-bromoethylamine hydrobromate (20.40 g, 100 mmol) were added to 50 mL of anhydrous acetonitrile. The mixture was refluxed at 70 °C under N₂ atmosphere for 24 h. The obtained 1-vinyl-3-ethylamine-imidazolium bromine-hydrobromic acid ([AVIM]Br·HBr) was obtained by centrifugation, washed with anhydrous ethanol (10 mL × 3) and dried in vacuum at 50 °C for 12 h. ¹H NMR (400 MHz, DMSO): δ 9.68 (s, 1 H), 8.31 (s, 1 H), 8.01 (s, 1 H), 7.39 (q, 1 H), 6.01 (s, 1 H), 5.45 (s, 1 H), 4.54 (m, 2 H), 3.44 (m, 2 H). Then, [AVIM]Br·HBr (3.00 g, 10 mmol) and the initiator 2,2'-azodiisobutyronitrile (AIBN, 0.45 g, 2.7 mmol) were dissolved in 15 mL of deionized water and reacted at 70 °C for 8 h. After cooled to room temperature, the homopolymerization of [AVIM]Br·HBr was finished.

2.2.2. Synthesis of dynamic covalent poly(ionic liquids) PAP

The pH of the solution of homopolymerized [AVIM]Br·HBr was adjusted to be a certain value (9, 10 and 11) by using 5 mol·L⁻¹ NaOH solution. Then, 1,4-phthalaldehyde (0.67 g, 5 mmol) was added and stirred for 0.5 h. The corresponding products at different pH values were denoted as PAP_{pH9}, PAP_{pH10} and PAP_{pH11}.

2.2.3. Synthesis of dynamic covalent poly(ionic liquids) PBP and PCP

The samples containing different aromatic spacers were synthesized following the similar route of PAP_{pH10}, wherein 1,4-phthalaldehyde (0.67 g, 5 mmol) was replaced by 4,4-biphenyldicarboxaldehyde (1.05 g, 5 mmol) or benzene-1,3,5-tricarbaldehyde (0.53 g, 3.33 mmol). The products were named as PBP_{pH10} and PCP_{pH10}, respectively.

2.3. Characterizations

¹H NMR spectra were collected on an Advance plus 400 MHz spectrometer (Bruker). X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns were recorded on Y2000 (Aolong) in the range of 5°–80° using Cu Kα radiation at a scanning step of 3°·min⁻¹. Thermogravimetry analysis (TGA) was conducted on a STA 449 F3 Jupiter® instrument (Netzsch) from 30 °C to 800 °C at a heating rate of 10 °C·min⁻¹ under N₂ atmosphere. Fourier transform infrared (FT-IR) spectra were recorded on a Tensor 27 spectrometer (Bruker) over KBr pellet in the region of 4000–400 cm⁻¹. N₂ adsorption/desorption isotherms were characterized at 77 K on an ASAP 2020 C volumetric adsorption analyzer (Micromeritics) by Brunner-Emmet-Teller (BET) analytical methods. The samples were activated at 120 °C for 6 h under vacuum condition before test. Elemental analysis (EA) was performed on a Varia EL cube (Elementar). Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) was performed on a JSM-7100 F microscope (JEOL, Japan). The acidity and basicity of the catalysts were determined by temperature-programmed desorption of ammonia (NH₃-TPD) and CO₂ (CO₂-TPD), respectively, by using a TP-5080 adsorption instrument. After the activation of samples at 120 °C for 2 h in a N₂ atmosphere, the samples were adsorbed with NH₃ (or CO₂) at 50 °C for 0.5 h. Then, the samples were purged in N₂ atmosphere at 50 °C for 0.5 h, heated to 150 °C at a rate of 5 °C/min and kept for 1.5 h to finish desorption.

2.4. In-situ diffuse reflectance infrared Fourier transform spectroscopy (in-situ DRIFTS) for CO₂ adsorption and conversion

In-situ DRIFTS was assessed using an attenuated total reflection Fourier transform infrared spectrophotometer with a resolution of 4 cm⁻¹ (Nicolet IS10, Thermo Scientific). For CO₂ adsorption, the sample was filled into an in-situ IR cell, and N₂ and CO₂ vapors were introduced into the cell. Before the measurement, the samples were purged with N₂ (gas flow: 30 mL·min⁻¹) for 30 min. The baseline was obtained before the sample reaching adsorption equilibrium of N₂. Then CO₂ was purged (gas flow: 15 mL·min⁻¹) for 10 min, and N₂ (gas flow: 10 mL·min⁻¹) was slowly purged until the peaks were unchanged. For the in-situ DRIFTS of the reaction of CO₂ and propylene oxide (PO), the catalyst was placed in the IT cell and purged with N₂ (gas flow: 30 mL·min⁻¹) for 30 min at 80 °C before the measurement. Then, CO₂ (gas flow: 5 mL·min⁻¹) was flowed through a washing bottle containing PO and purged into the IR cell for a certain time at 50 °C.

2.5. Catalytic performance evaluation

The mixture of the catalyst (0.125 g) and pre-cooled epoxides (10 mmol) were added into a 10 mL of Schlenk tube connected with a latex balloon. The assembled reactor was kept at 5 °C and purged of air with CO₂ for three times. For the reaction of CO₂ with low-boiling PO, the above operations were done at –10 °C. Then, 300 mL of CO₂ was filled into the balloon, and the reaction was kept at a certain temperature under stirring at 300 rpm for 24 h. After the reaction, the mixture was cooled to –10 °C, and remaining CO₂ in the balloon was slowly pressed

into pre-cooled deuterated chloroform (CDCl_3). The liquid product was then separated with the catalyst by centrifugation and dissolved in the above CDCl_3 solution for ^1H NMR characterization.

The yield of cyclic carbonate was calculated by using Eqs. (1)–(3):

$$\text{Yield (\%)} = \text{Conversion} \times \text{Selectivity} \quad (1)$$

$$\text{Conversion (\%)} = \frac{C_0 - C_t}{C_0} \times 100\% \quad (2)$$

$$\text{Selectivity (\%)} = \frac{C_{\text{carbonate}}}{C_0 - C_t} \times 100\% \quad (3)$$

where c_0 and c_t represent the concentrations of epoxide ($\text{mol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$) at 0 and t h, respectively, while $c_{\text{carbonate}}$ represents the concentration ($\text{mol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$) of cyclic carbonate formed at the specified time. The conversion of epoxides and selectivity of cyclic carbonates were calculated from ^1H NMR according to the equations in Fig. S1. The separated catalyst was washed with anhydrous methanol ($10\text{ mL} \times 3$), dried at 60°C for 8 h, and then reused for the next cycling reaction.

2.6. Computational details

The equilibrium geometries of the reactants, products and intermediates were optimized via density functional theory (DFT) calculation by using the B3LYP method and 6–31 G(d) basis set (B3LYP/

6–31 G(d)) [35]. The Grimme's DFT-D3 method was applied to correct the van der Waals for all molecules and free radicals. The theoretical FT-IR spectroscopy was calculated by using a scale factor of 0.9613. The beneficial sites for electrophile and nucleophile attack were obtained by using the Fukui function and the dual descriptor [36]. The dual descriptor (Δf) was calculated using Eq. (4) [37].

$$\Delta f = f^+ - f^- = 2q_N - q_{N-1} - q_{N+1} \quad (4)$$

where q_{N+1} , q_N and q_{N-1} are the Hirshfeld charges of the system under anionic ($N+1$), neutral (N) and cationic ($N-1$) states, respectively. The Hirshfeld charges were calculated separately using the Multiwfn software package [37]. The generated wave functions were used for electrostatic potential (ESP) analysis.

The calculation of reaction transition state was performed by using the B3LYP method and 6–31 G(d) basis set (B3LYP/6–31 G(d)) at 323 K. The only virtual frequency in the frequency calculation refers to the presence of transition state. The minimum energy path (MEP) was further confirmed by using the intrinsic reaction coordinate (IRC) method. The sum of the relative energy of catalyst, ECH, and CO_2 was set as 0.00 $\text{kcal}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$. The relative energy was calculated according to the reactant energies, which were set as 0.00 $\text{kcal}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$, while the barrier height was measured from the corresponding intermediate energy level.

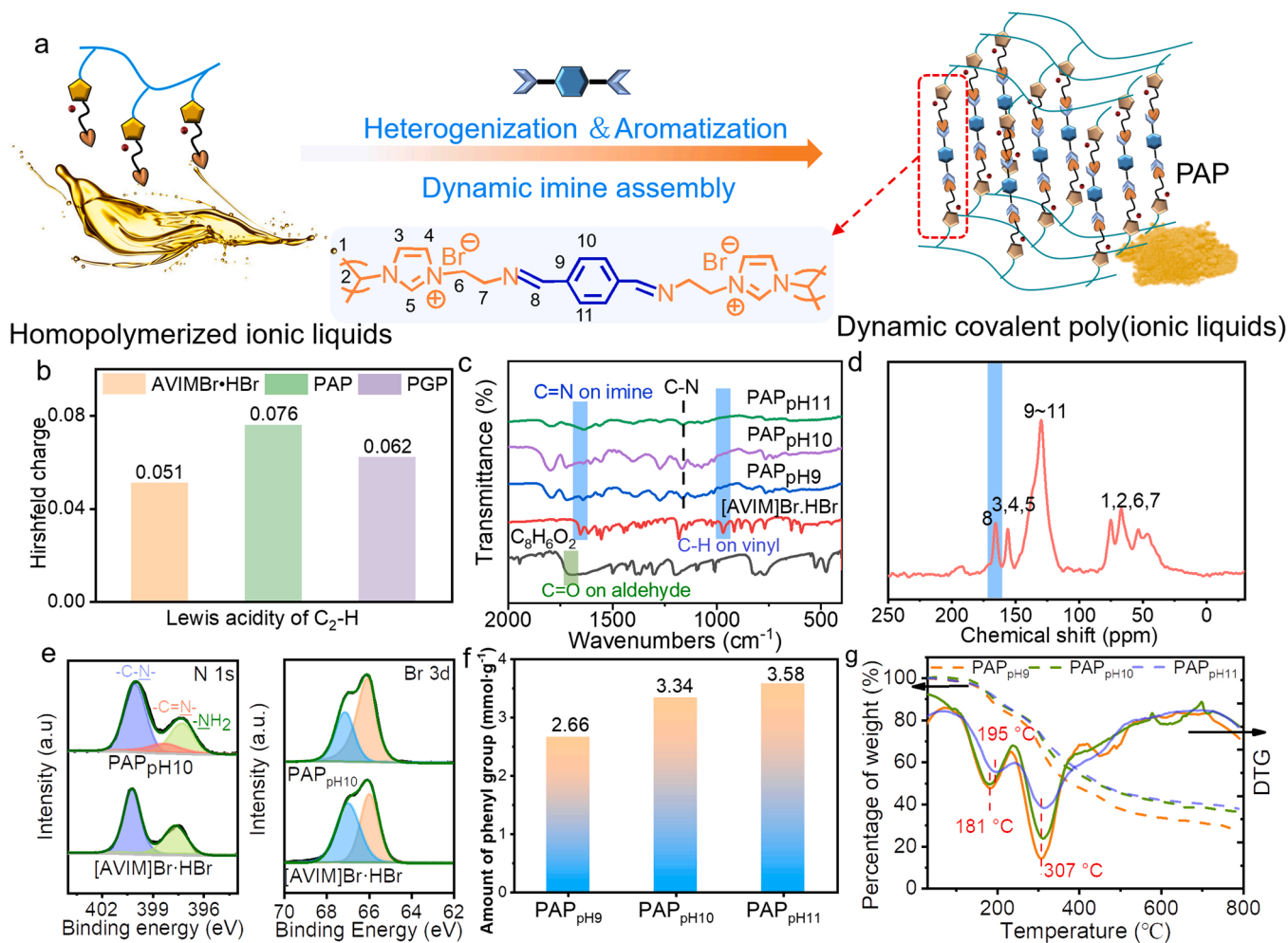


Fig. 1. (a) Schematic illustration for the heterogenization and aromatization of homopolymerized ionic liquids. (b) DFT calculated Hirshfeld charge of C-2 proton on imidazolium ring of [AVIM]Br·HBr and dynamic covalent poly(ionic liquids) (PAP and PGP). (c) FT-IR spectra of [AVIM]Br·HBr, p-benzaldehyde, PAP_{pH9}, PAP_{pH10} and PAP_{pH11}. (d) Solid ^{13}C NMR spectrum of PAP_{pH10}. (e) N 1s and Br 3d XPS spectra of [AVIM]Br·HBr and PAP_{pH10}. (f) Amount of phenyl group in PAP_{pH9}, PAP_{pH10} and PAP_{pH11}. (g) TGA and DTG profiles for PAP_{pH9}, PAP_{pH10} and PAP_{pH11} in N_2 atmosphere.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Heterogenization and aromatization of homopolymerized ionic liquids

To achieve the aromatization of homopolymerized ionic liquids, a typical aromatic spacer (i.e., 1,4-phthalaldehyde) has been employed to assembly with amino-functionalized homopolymerized ionic liquids into network through dynamic imine bonding (Fig. 1a). DFT calculation demonstrated the Hirshfeld charge of C-2 proton on imidazolium ring is highly increased from 0.051 to 0.076 with the incorporation of electron-withdrawing aromatic moiety (Fig. 1b), which is just increased to 0.062 when glutaraldehyde (a kind of aliphatic aldehyde) is linked (see PGP in Fig. 1b). This phenomenon indicates the aromatic group enhances the electrophilicity of C-2 proton, which is of high promise for facilitating the ring-opening of epoxides [11–13]. Considering the pH-dependence of dynamic imine bonding [38,39], amino-functionalized polyILs have been assembled with 1,4-phthalaldehyde at different pH values (i.e., pH = 9, 10, 11) and room temperature. It has been observed that homogeneous IL has been successfully transformed into heterogeneous power.

The structures of the resultant dynamic covalent polyILs (named as PAP) have been characterized to confirm the successful polymerization and assembly of amino-functionalized IL. In the FT-IR spectra of the PAP samples (Fig. 1c), the C-H bending vibration band of vinyl group at 962 cm^{-1} disappears, while the characteristic peaks of out-of-plane bending ($651, 752$ and 853 cm^{-1}) and C-N and C=C stretching (1150 and 1560 cm^{-1}) of the imidazolium ring keep visible, indicating the successful polymerization and incorporation of IL. Particularly, the adsorption band at 1650 cm^{-1} assigned to the C=N bond can be observed, proving the successful reaction of the amino group and aldehyde group [40]. In the solid ^{13}C NMR spectrum of PAP_{pH10} (Fig. 1d), meanwhile, the peak at 168 ppm related to the C=N group can be observed [41]. In the N 1s XPS profile of AVIM]Br·HBr (Fig. 1e), the two peaks at 400.0 eV and 397.1 eV correspond to the N signals on imidazolium ring and -NH₂ group, respectively. The area percentage of the N 1s peaks on imidazolium ring and -NH₂ group is 50.5% and 49.5%, respectively (Table S2). A new signal at 398.3 eV appears in the N 1s XPS profile of PAP_{pH10}, signifying the formation of imine bond [42]. Correspondingly, the area percentage of the N 1s peak on -NH₂ group is significantly decreased to be 13.2%, followed by the

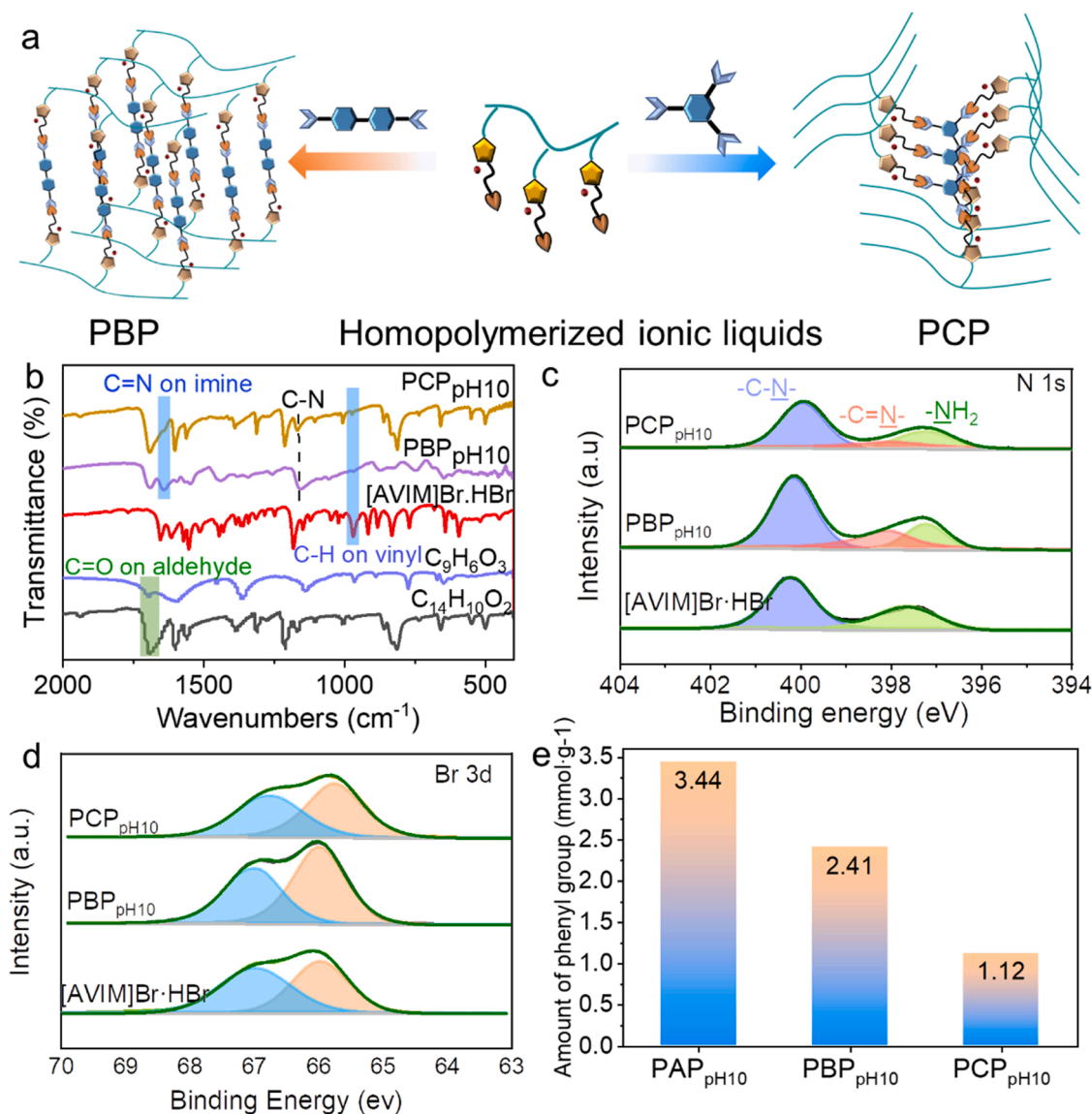


Fig. 2. (a) Schematic illustration for synthesis of PBP_{pH10} and PCP_{pH10}. (b) FT-IR spectra of [AVIM]Br·HBr, 4,4-biphenyldicarboxaldehyde, benzene-1,3,5-tricarbaldehyde, PBP_{pH10} and PCP_{pH10}. (c) N 1s XPS spectra of [AVIM]Br·HBr, PBP_{pH10} and PCP_{pH10}. (d) Br 3d XPS spectra of [AVIM]Br·HBr, PBP_{pH10} and PCP_{pH10}. (e) Amount of phenyl group in PBP_{pH10} and PCP_{pH10}.

increase of the area percentage of the N 1 s peak on C=N bond to be 35.3%. This result verifies that partial -NH₂ group in [AVIM]Br-HBr has been successfully reacted with aldehyde group to form imine group. While the Br 3d XPS peak position keeps constant after assembly, indicating that Br⁻ remains at a free state. EA analysis confirmed that the amount of phenyl group is gradually increased from 2.66 to 3.34 and then to 3.58 mmol·g⁻¹ with increasing pH from 9.0 to 11.0 (Fig. 1f, detailed calculation is based on Eqs. (S1) and (S2)), which is mainly because a higher pH would facilitate imine assembly [38,39].

To clarify the effect of aromatic moiety on the catalytic performance of dynamic covalent polyILs, a set of control samples have been constructed by using various kinds of aldehyde-based spacers, i.e., glutaraldehyde, 4,4-biphenyldicarboxaldehyde and benzene-1,3,5-tricarbaldehyde (see Fig. 2a). Noting that the employment of glutaraldehyde was failed to afford a heterogeneous power probably due to its flexibility. Similar to PAP_{pH10}, the FT-IR (Fig. 2b) and XPS characterizations (Fig. 2c,d) of the resultant PBP_{pH10} and PCP_{pH10} samples verify the successful assembly of polyILs with aldehyde-based spacers. It has been calculated from EA analysis that the content of the phenyl group is increased from 1.12 mmol·g⁻¹ in PCP_{pH10} to 2.41 mmol·g⁻¹ in PBP_{pH10} and then to 3.44 mmol·g⁻¹ in PAP_{pH10} (Fig. 2e). The much lower content of phenyl group in PBP_{pH10} than the theoretical value is probably due to the low solubility of 4,4-biphenyldicarboxaldehyde in water during the synthesis of PBP sample.

The structure and porous properties of the samples have been investigated. SEM and XRD characterizations indicate that the dynamic covalent polymers are amorphous and non-crystalline (Figs. S2 and S3). The pore structures of the materials were analyzed by N₂ adsorption-desorption isotherms. The N₂ adsorption-desorption curves of all the samples present typical H3-type hysteresis loop (Fig. S4), reflecting the wedge-shaped structure [8]. Compared to other PAPs, PAP_{pH10} has a

larger specific surface area (33 m²·g⁻¹) and total pore volume (0.081 cm³·g⁻¹) (Table S1). The thermal stability of the catalysts is also one of the critical factors for their practical applications. TGA analysis shows that the samples exhibit good stability with an initial decomposition temperature above 180 °C, much higher than the catalytic temperature (below 90 °C). A maximum decomposition temperature around 310 °C can be observed in the samples (Fig. 1g), probably caused by the degradation of imidazole skeleton.

3.2. Metal-/cocatalyst-free and atmospheric CO₂ cycloaddition

The catalytic performances of the dynamic covalent polyILs in the synthesis of cyclic carbonates from CO₂ and epoxides have been evaluated under solvent-/co-catalyst-free conditions. In the typical coupling reaction of CO₂ and epichlorohydrin (ECH), as shown in Figs. 3a and S5, the dynamic covalent polyILs perform good-to-outstanding catalytic activities under extremely mild conditions (1 atm CO₂, T = 50 °C, 24 h). Particularly, a high yield of chloropropylene carbonate (CPC) of 94% is afforded over PAP_{pH10}, much more superior than that of bulk polyIL (12%), indicating the beneficial effect of aromatic moiety on the catalytic activity.

The effect of amount of aromatic group on the catalytic performances of dynamic covalent polymers has then been analyzed. The amount of phenyl group decreases following the order of PAP_{pH10} > PBP_{pH10} > PCP_{pH10} > PIL (3.44 vs 2.41 vs 1.12 vs 0 mmol·g⁻¹), and the content of ionic liquid increases correspondingly. It is interestingly found that although the amount of ionic liquid (which contributes the Lewis acidic and basic active sites) is decreased, the catalytic activity in the coupling reaction of CO₂ and epichlorohydrin is increased (Fig. 3b). This result can verify the beneficial effect of aromatic moiety on the strength of Lewis acidity and/or basicity, thus promoting the catalytic activity of

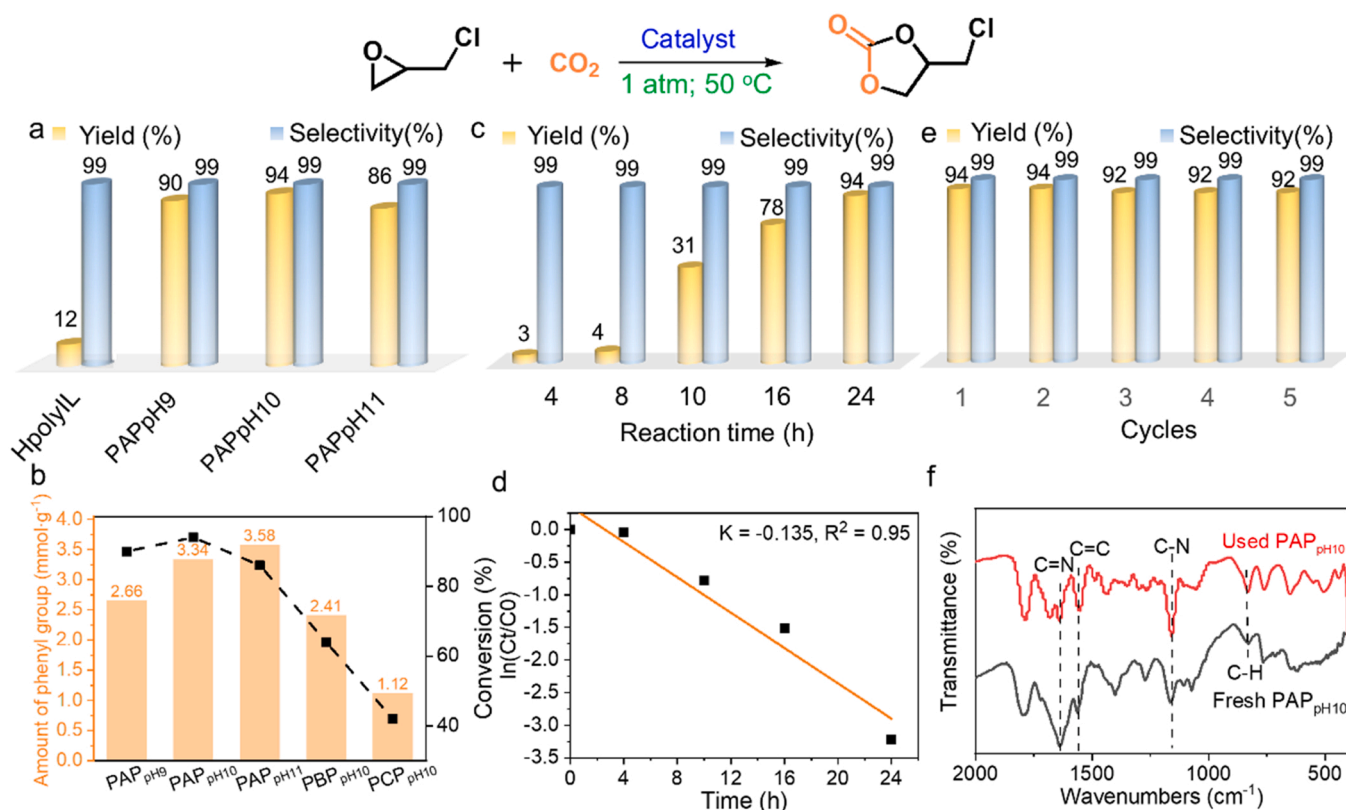


Fig. 3. (a) Catalytic performance of dynamic covalent polyILs (i.e., chloropropylene carbonate yield) in the reaction of CO₂ and ECH. (b) Correlation of catalytic activity with the amount of phenyl group. (c) Catalytic performance of PAP_{pH10} in the reaction of CO₂ and ECH at different time. (d) Kinetic fitting curve of PAP_{pH10}; (e) Cyclic performance of PAP_{pH10}. (f) FT-IR spectra of fresh prepared and recycled PAP_{pH10}. Reaction conditions: (a,b,e) 10 mmol ECH, 0.125 g catalyst, P = 1 bar, t = 24 h; (c,d) 10 mmol ECH, 0.125 g catalyst, P = 1 bar, t = 4, 8, 10, 16, 24 h.

ionic liquid. While for the PAP samples prepared at different pH values, the catalytic activity of PAP_{pH10} is slightly higher than that of PAP_{pH9} and PAP_{pH11} (94% vs 90% vs 86%). This phenomenon implies that an optimized ratio of the aromatic moiety and IL is necessary for balancing their synergy in the catalytic process.

Kinetics is an important index to reflect the nature of the catalytic process. The catalytic activity of PAP_{pH10} as a function of reaction time has then been characterized (Fig. 3c). The reaction rate has been estimated by using Eqs. (S3)–(S5), and the result indicates that the catalytic reaction follows first-order kinetics with a rate constant of 0.135 h⁻¹ (Fig. 3d) [43].

The reusability of PAP_{pH10} in the coupling reaction of CO₂ and ECH has then been tested. It can be seen that the catalytic activity of PAP_{pH10} keeps well upon 5 catalytic cycles (Fig. 3e). No obvious mass loss was observed in each cycle and 97 wt% of the initial catalyst was recovered after 5 cycles. SEM, XRD and FT-IR characterizations of the used catalyst show that the structure of PAP_{pH10} remains intact after 5 cycles (Figs. 3f and S6). Meanwhile, the N 1 s and Br 3d XPS signals of used PAP_{pH10} keep consistent with the freshly prepared one, revealing its good catalytic stability. The specific surface area of used PAP_{pH10} is slightly lower than the fresh one (29 m²·g⁻¹ vs 33 m²·g⁻¹) (Fig. S6), which is probably caused by the small amount of residual product in the pores. To further confirm the catalyst stability during the catalytic process, we have supplied the catalytic reaction of ECH and CO₂ catalyzed by PAP_{pH10} at a higher temperature (90 °C) for 24 h. The ¹H NMR spectrum of the resultant liquid product shows that there is no signal of ionic liquid (see Fig. S7), indicating no polyIL catalyst was leached during the reaction process. To further verify the stability of free Br⁻ ions, the liquid product was dissolved in water and titrated with silver nitrate solution. There is no precipitate observed with the addition of silver nitrate, and the transmittance of the solution detected by UV spectrophotometry is not decreased (see Fig. S8). The slight increase of the transmittance with the addition of silver nitrate is probably because the own pale yellow of CPC is attenuated with the mixture of transparent solution of silver nitrate. The phenomena above confirm there is no leaching of Br⁻ ions and ionic liquids during the catalytic process.



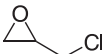
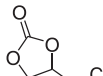
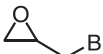
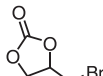
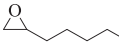
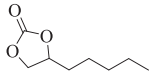

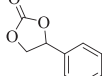

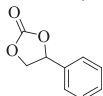
The universality of PAP_{pH10} for the coupling of CO₂ with various epoxides has been detected (Table 1). It can be seen that PAP_{pH10} can catalyze the epoxides with aliphatic alkyl and chloromethyl substituent groups (entries 1–4) into cyclic carbonates with good-to-excellent yields

under mild condition (1 atm, 50 °C). A relatively low yield of cyclic carbonates (48%) is afforded in the reaction of CO₂ with phenylethylene oxide caused by the strong conjugative and steric effect of aromatic ring (entry 5) [26]. However, a higher yield (89%) of phenylethylene carbonate can be obtained at 90 °C (entry 6). It can be seen that this kind of catalyst performs a great tolerance and high catalytic activity for a variety of epoxides under relatively mild conditions (1 atm, 50–90 °C).

To evaluate the industrial potential of PAP_{pH10}, the catalytic performance for the coupling reaction of ECH with simulated flue gas (15 vol% CO₂ + 85 vol% N₂) was performed. Considering the temperature of flue gas is generally at the range of 50–120 °C, the catalytic reaction was performed at various temperatures (i.e., 50, 70, 90 and 120 °C). It can be seen in Fig. S9, the CPC yield is 21%, which is increased gradually with the increase of reaction temperature. It's interesting found that the CPC yield can reach up to 92% at 120 °C, demonstrating its great potential for CO₂ conversion in industrial application.

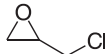
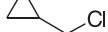














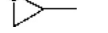

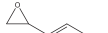
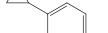
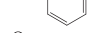

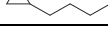
Numerous catalytic systems, including homogeneous and heterogeneous ones, have been developed for the coupling of CO₂ and epoxides, most of which still suffer from high CO₂ pressure and temperature and/or homogeneous cocatalysts [2,7–13,24,44–56]. Kinds of catalysts with relatively high activity (e.g., reaction temperature ≤ 100 °C, pressure ≤ 20 bar) for different types of epoxides are listed in Table 2. It can be seen that the PAP_{pH10} catalyst developed in this work exhibits comparable and even higher activity than metal-based catalysts (e.g., Entries 2–6, 15). Moreover, PAP_{pH10} catalyst possesses relatively mild preparation and metal-/solvent-/cocatalyst-free nature, thus promoting its competitiveness in practical application. The TON and TOF values of the PAP₁₀ catalyst for the reaction of various epoxides and CO₂ have also been calculated (see Table 1). For the calculation of TOF, the mole of active sites in catalyst is obtained from the sum of the Lewis basic and acidic sites determined by CO₂/NH₃ TPD (i.e., 0.32 mmol·g⁻¹, Fig. S10). The TON/TOF values of kinds of catalysts for cycloaddition reactions of epoxides and CO₂ under relatively mild reaction conditions (e.g., reaction temperature ≤ 100 °C, pressure ≤ 20 bar) are listed in Table S3 [28, 57–66]. It can be seen that the TON/TOF values of PAP_{pH10} catalyst are comparable and even higher than metal-based or TBAB-assisted catalysts (e.g., Entries 2–6 and 15), further indicating its superior catalytic activity.

Table 1
Catalytic performance of PAP_{pH10} for the coupling of CO₂ with various epoxides.

Entry	Substrates	Products	T (°C)	P (bar)	t (h)	Yield (%)	Selectivity (%)	TON	TOF (h ⁻¹)
1			50	1	24	99	99	247.5	10.31
2			50	1	24	94	99	235.0	9.79
3			50	1	24	92	99	230.0	9.59
4			50	1	24	85	99	212.5	8.86
5			50	1	24	43	99	107.5	4.48
6			90	1	24	89	99	222.5	9.27

TON = mole of products)/(mole of active sites in catalyst); TOF = mole of products)/(mole of active sites in catalyst)* (reaction time). Mole of active sites in catalyst is obtained from the sum of the basic and acidic sites determined by CO₂/NH₃ TPD.

Table 2Comparison of the catalytic performance of PAP_{pH10} with previously reported catalysts.

Entry	Catalyst	Substrate	P (bar)	T (°C)	Co-catalyst	t (h)	Yield (%)	Ref.
1	PAP _{pH10}		1	50	None	24	94	This work
2	ILs@Al-O-C		1	80	None	24	91	[2]
3	N/O@C		20	100	None	12	90	[10]
4	Co(II)-MOF		10	80	TBAB	3	97	[44]
5	ZnPC-2		15	70	TBAB	8	97.2	[45]
6	Mg-MOF		1	60	None	24	91	[46]
7	COF-SO ₃ H		1	80	TBAB	24	99	[7]
8	RE-2 f		1	25	TBAI	24	91	[47]
9	PCN-224(Mg)		1	LED light	TBAB	6	≈ 90	[48]
10	Al-N-C		1	Photo	TBAB	16	≈ 91	[49]
11	PAP _{pH10}		1	50	None	24	92	This work
12	Ce-UiO-66-F		1	60	TBAB	4	96	[50]
13	N/O@C		2	100	None	12	99	[10]
14	PAIL-3		5	60	None	2	> 96.3	[51]
15	polyILs@MIL-101		1	70	None	24	85	[24]
16	PAP _{pH10}		1	50	None	24	99	This work
17	[HTMG][His][I]		20	80	None	3	99	[52]
18	PN-CSU23		1	25	TBAB	48	99	[53]
19	PAP _{pH10}		1	90	None	24	89	This work
20	BNCNTs@HMPs-NH ₂		1	25	None	24	96	[54]
21	Cu(II)/TD		3	100	None	6	100	[55]
22	PAP _{pH10}		1	50	None	24	85	This work
23	MIL-IL(A)		20	110	None	2	99	[56]

3.3. Effect of aromatic moiety on catalytic mechanism

To verify the beneficial effect of aromatic moiety on the catalytic activity, we compared the reaction activation energy of the cycloaddition of ECH and CO₂ catalyzed by the ionic liquid monomer ([AVIM]Br) and four simplified models of dynamic covalent polyILs, in which two IL monomers are connected with a aliphatic spacer (named as PGP), a phenyl spacer (named as PAP) and a biphenyl spacer (named as PBP) and three IL monomers are connected with a phenyl spacer (named as PCP) by using DFT calculations. The reaction steps (intermediates and transition states) of the cycloaddition of ECH and CO₂ over the three models have been compared (see Figs. 4a and S11). It can be seen that the reaction energy barrier of the cycloaddition of ECH and CO₂ is decreased following the order of PGP > [AVIM]Br > PCP > PAP > PBP (32.32 kcal·mol⁻¹ vs 29.73 kcal·mol⁻¹ vs 28.14 kcal·mol⁻¹ vs 20.95 kcal·mol⁻¹ vs 11.16 kcal·mol⁻¹). That is, the reaction energy barrier is increased with the incorporation of aliphatic group on the side-chain of [AVIM]Br and decreased with the incorporation of phenyl group, verifying the catalytic activity of IL can be highly improved with the enhancement of aromaticity.

The detailed activated mechanism during the catalytic process has been demonstrated. Firstly, the acidity and basicity of PAP_{pH10} have been explored by NH₃-TPD and CO₂-TPD, respectively. In both the CO₂-TPD and NH₃-TPD profiles, a broad desorption peak can be observed around 150 °C (Fig. S10), implying both basic site and acidic site are present in PAP_{pH10}. The amount of basicity and acidity in PAP_{pH10} is 0.17 mmol·g⁻¹ and 0.15 mmol·g⁻¹, respectively. The intermediates and transition states of the cycloaddition of ECH and CO₂ catalyzed by PAP_{pH10} have then been calculated. As is known from Fig. 4a, the ring-opening of epoxides is the rate determining step of the catalytic reaction [10–13]. The C-2 proton on the imidazolium IL can attack the O atom on epoxide through hydrogen bonding interaction and thus weaken the C-O bond (Fig. 4b), which is crucial for facilitating the ring-opening of epoxide [19,20]. It can be seen that the length of hydrogen bond between the C-2 proton on bulk IL monomer and O atom on epoxide is reduced from 2.43 Å to 1.97 Å, 1.91 Å and 1.84 Å with the increase of content of aromatic group, indicating an increased strength of hydrogen bond. As a result, the length of C-O bond on epoxide is increased from 1.44 Å to 1.47 Å, implying a facilitated ring-opening of epoxide [12–14, 16].

To further confirm the catalytic mechanism during the cycloaddition

reaction of epoxide and CO₂, in-situ diffuse reflectance infrared Fourier transform spectroscopy (in-situ DRIFTS) of PAP_{pH10} for the reaction of CO₂ and propylene oxide (PO) at different reaction time was performed. As shown in Fig. 4c, the stretching peaks of C=O (1800 cm⁻¹) and O-C-O (1028 cm⁻¹) on the product propylene carbonate (PC) appear with the access of PO and CO₂, indicating the successful conversion of PO and CO₂ into PC. It is interestingly found that the stretching peak of C-H on imidazolium ring (2946 cm⁻¹) shifts significantly to lower frequency (2924 cm⁻¹) during the reaction, followed by the slight shift of the stretching peak of C-H on benzene ring from 974 cm⁻¹ to 961 cm⁻¹, which is caused by their hydrogen bonding interaction with O on PO [15]. The C=C stretching peak of benzene/imidazole skeleton also shifts to lower frequency, mainly caused by the electron donating effect of O on PO and/or conjugative effect of O=C=O [30]. Meanwhile, the strengthened C-Br stretching peak (660 cm⁻¹) on the ring-opened intermediate can also be observed. That is, Br⁻ attacks the less sterically hindered carbon atom of epoxide ring as a nucleophile, thus facilitating the ring-opening of epoxide [26].

As is known, the activation of inert CO₂ is of high promise for boosting its subsequent conversion, which yet remains a great challenge [12]. The active ability of PAP_{pH10} for CO₂ has been visually explored via in-situ FT-IR spectroscopy of CO₂ adsorption. In the in-situ FT-IR spectroscopy of CO₂ adsorbed on PAP_{pH10} (Fig. 4d), two strong bands for ν₃ antisymmetric stretching at 2359 cm⁻¹ and 2331 cm⁻¹ with several shoulder peaks can be observed. With N₂ purge for 10 min, most of the above peaks disappear and three large shoulder peaks at the band range of 2331 cm⁻¹~ 2339 cm⁻¹ are still obviously visible with N₂ purge for 10 min. This phenomenon indicates a strong interaction occurs between CO₂ and the corresponding sites. Then, IR patterns of the possible adsorbed sites for CO₂ have been calculated (Fig. 4e). Three sites corresponding to the band at 2331 cm⁻¹, 2335 cm⁻¹ and 2339 cm⁻¹ have been found (Fig. S12), which are assigned to the O=C=O bending vibrations on phenyl group (Site 1), Br⁻ ion (Site 2) and both the imine group and phenyl group (Site 3). It is noted that the bond angle of O=C=O has been bended from 180° to 174.4°, 175.0° and 178.5° on Site 1, Site 2 and Site 3, respectively, confirming that CO₂ has been successfully activated [67,68]. Amongst, Br⁻ ion and imine group act as Lewis basic sites to attack the O atom on CO₂ and the aromatic ring can adsorb and lead to electron transfer and CO₂ bending through π-conjugating interaction [26,30].

In light of the in-situ FT-IR and DFT calculation results, it can be

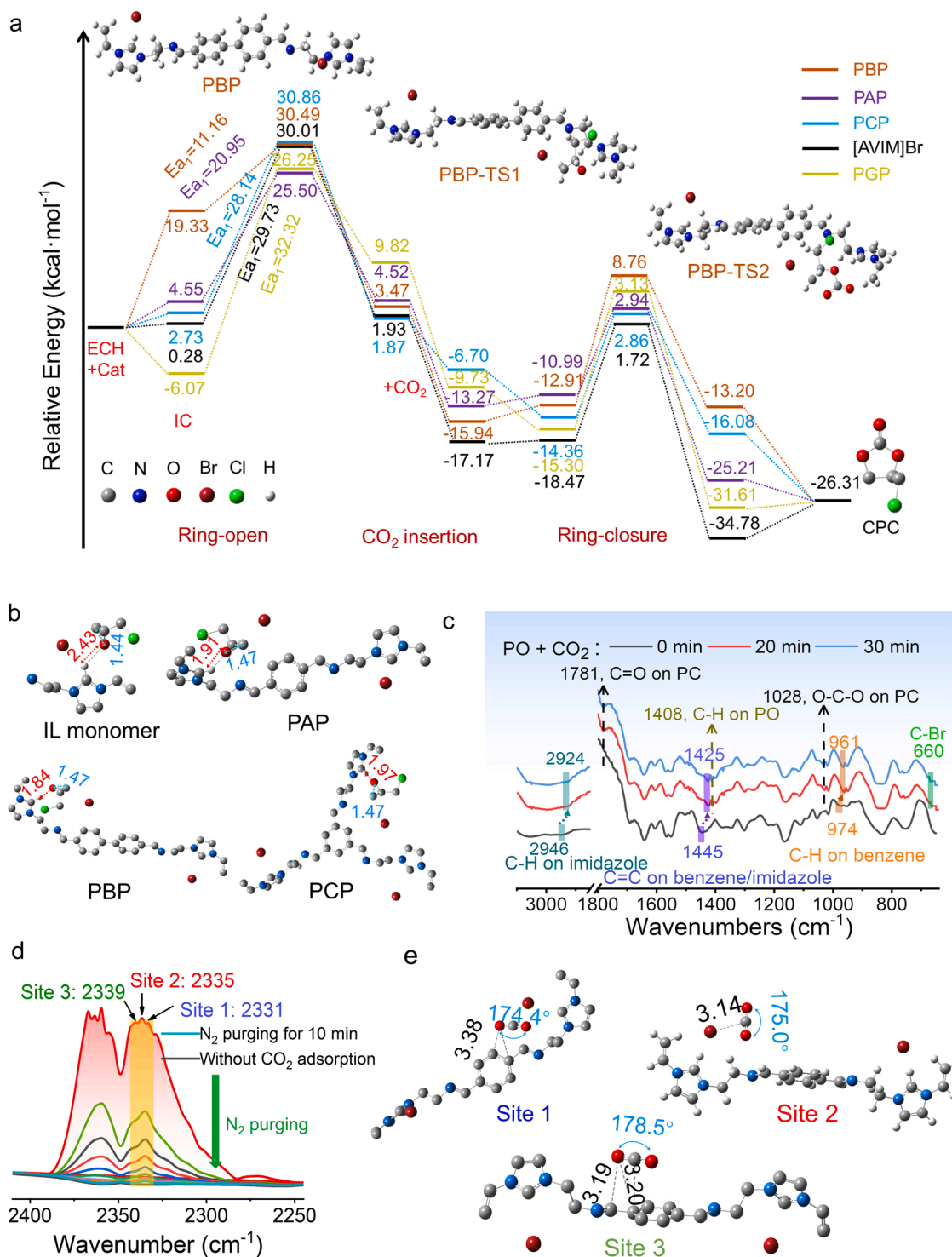


Fig. 4. (a) Relative free energy profiles of the intermediates and transition states of the cycloaddition of ECH and CO₂ catalyzed by ILmonomer [AVIM]Br (black lines) and four simplified models of dynamic covalent polyILs PGP (yellow lines), PAP (purple lines), PBP (red lines) and PCP (blue lines). (b) DFT calculated optimized structures of the reaction intermediates for the ring-opening of ECH catalyzed by bulk ILmonomer [AVIM]Br, PAP, PBP and PCP. (c) *In-situ DRIFTS* spectra of PAP_{pH10} during the reaction of PO with CO₂ at atmospheric pressure and 50 °C for different time (*i. e.*, 0, 20, 30 min). CO₂ flow: mL·min⁻¹. (d) FT-IR patterns of CO₂ adsorbed on PAP_{pH10} in the ν_3 antisymmetric stretching mode regime with N₂ purging. (e) DFT calculated FT-IR patterns and the corresponding optimized structures of CO₂ adsorbed on Site 1, Site 2 and Site 3 of PAP_{pH10}. Bond lengths are reported in Å.

demonstrated that the aromatic group can both activate CO₂ and promote ring-opening of epoxides. The reaction mechanism of CO₂ with epoxides over PAP is thus proposed in Fig. S13. Firstly, the C-2 proton on the imidazolium ring activates O on epoxide through hydrogen bonding interaction, and the nucleophilic Br⁻ attacks the less sterically hindered

carbon atom of epoxide ring. As a result, the ring of epoxide can be opened easily. Meanwhile, the Br⁻ ion and imine group attack the O atom on CO₂ and the aromatic ring can adsorb CO₂ and lead to electron transfer and CO₂ bending. The activated CO₂ is inserted into the C-Br bonds of the ring-opened intermediate, producing a new intermediate.

Finally, cyclic carbonate is generated via the ring-closing of the intermediate.

4. Conclusion

The heterogenization and aromatization of homogeneous polyILs have been facilely achieved through the dynamic imine assembly of polyILs and aromatic spacers. *In-situ* FT-IR and DFT calculation proved the incorporation of aromatic moiety on IL can facilitate CO₂ activation and promote the hydrogen bonding between C-2 proton on imidazolium ring and O on epoxides synchronously, thus boosting the reaction of CO₂ and epoxides. The structure of the dynamic covalent polyILs can be facilely regulated through the assembly process control, thus offering a feasible approach for promoting the catalytic activity. Superior to most reported heterogeneous catalyst, the resultant dynamic covalent polyILs possess facile preparation, metal-/cocatalyst-free nature, superior activity under extremely mild condition (1 atm, 50–90 °C, 24 h), outstanding recyclability and great tolerance for a variety of epoxides. This work paves a facile strategy for the tailor-made intensification of the Lewis acidity/basicity of a given heterogeneous catalyst at a molecular level, providing an innovative method to design specific catalysts for energy conversion & utilization and environmental protection.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Mingyue Qiu: Investigation, Methodology, Visualization, Writing – original draft, Formal analysis. **Jie Li:** Investigation, Formal analysis, Visualization. **Haonan Wu:** Methodology, Visualization. **Yi Huang:** Visualization. **Huijuan Guo:** Formal analysis. **Dan Gao:** Formal analysis. **Qun Yi:** Methodology, Supervision, Conceptualization, Funding acquisition, Writing – review & editing. **Lijuan Shi:** Writing – review & editing, Data curation, Supervision.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

Acknowledgments

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Appendix A. Supplementary material

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found in the online version at [doi:10.1016/j.apcatb.2022.122125](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apcatb.2022.122125).

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